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Modern Public Libraries and their Methods

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I.—*Modern Public Libraries and their Methods.*

By MR. LAWRENCE J. BURPEE.

Communicated by Sir John Bourinot, K.C.M.G.

(Read May 27, 1902.)

The history of libraries may be traced far back into classical times, but none of these were public libraries, in the modern sense of the term, any more than were the Monastic libraries of the Middle Ages. The first use of the term *bibliotheca publica* is found in the fifteenth century, and the collection of manuscripts bequeathed by Niccolo Niccoli to the city of Florence, with the distinct provision that they were to be devoted to the use of the citizens, may perhaps be regarded as the first public library. This early progenitor of the modern free library was afterwards merged into the Lauranziana, and the original manuscripts, or most of them, may still be seen in that library. It was, however, but an isolated example, far in advance of its times, and had no legitimate successor until long after the invention of printing.

After Gutenburg, Fust and Peter Schoeffer in Germany, Coster in Holland, and Caxton in England, had firmly established that greatest of all modern inventions, the Printing Press, libraries of all kinds became more common. They had previously been for the most part confined to the universities, the monasteries, and (in England) a few powerful guilds, such as the Corporation of London and the Kalendars of Bristol. They now spread among the . . wealthy and the less learned classes. Legal and medical libraries were formed for the use of professional men; the old monastic libraries were offset, in Protestant centres, by libraries containing the works of Luther, Melanchthon, Erasmus, etc.; and in the castles of princes and great nobles were to be found collections of popular romances, chronicles, etc., such as came from the presses of Caxton, Wynkyn de Worde, and other early printers.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.[1]

The earliest traces of free town libraries in England belong to the beginning of the seventeenth century. The town library at Norwich, founded in 1608, is a characteristic example of a class of library peculiar to this period. It is the oldest city free library with a continuous history to the present day. The Norwich library, and others of the same kind, were not provided by the community, as our modern free libraries are,

[1] For the following particulars regarding public libraries in the United Kingdom I am chiefly indebted to Mr. J. J. Ogle's admirable little work on *The Free Library*, London, 1897.

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but were the gift of some wealthy townsman who, like Niccolo Niccoli of Florence, industriously collected books during his lifetime, and when he died left them as a legacy to his fellow-citizens.

Five years after the establishment of the Norwich library, a city library was opened at Bristol. This library has since been absorbed by the new Bristol Free Library. A parochial free library was established in 1623 at Langley Marish, in Buckinghamshire, by Sir John Kederminster. The town of Leicester opened a library in 1632; and in 1653 the Chetham Library at Manchester was founded, through the generosity of Sir Humphrey Chetham. Numerous grammar school libraries also dated from the end of the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth centuries.

In 1753 the greatest of all English libraries was established—the British Museum. The subsequent history of free public libraries in Great Britain is closely identified with this great national institution. The influence of the Museum and its librarians has always been a powerful factor for good in the moulding of public sentiment towards free public libraries in every part of the United Kingdom, and each new development in the organization and management of libraries has been carefully examined and tested at the Museum.

The British Museum has become the repository from time to time of many earlier collections of books and manuscripts. The first of these was the library of 50,000 volumes of printed books and manuscripts, with collections of coins, medals, etc., acquired by the nation from the estate of Sir Hans Sloane of Chelsea, and which formed the nucleus of the British Museum. At the same time the Harleian MSS. were purchased, and these, with the Cottonian MSS., already the property of the nation, were added to the new national library. Shortly afterwards the King—George II.—transferred to the Museum the Royal Library of the Kings of England, containing some splendid examples of early printing, including a series of vellum copies by the famous French printer Verard, specimens of Caxton, De Worde and other early English printers, besides many valuable MSS. Since then the Museum has been the recipient of a dozen or more valuable collections of books, pamphlets, and manuscripts, including the Thomason Collection, 30,000 distinct publications, presented by George III.; the Cracherode Bequest of 4,500 volumes, made in 1799; the splendid library of 84,000 books and MSS. presented by George IV.; the Grenville Collection, received in 1846, etc. One of the most curious bequests was a set of the Chinese "Cyclopædia," a single work in 5,000 volumes.

The growth of this great library is well illustrated by the number of readers who made use of it at different periods of its history. In 1810 the number of visitors to the old Reading Room was about 1,950 for the

whole year; in 1832 the visits had increased to 46,800; and in 1894 the number of readers was over 200,000.

In 1845 an Act "for encouraging the establishment of museums in large towns" was passed. Although the Act made no provision for books, the town of Warrington in 1848 established a library of reference, free to the public on certain days and within certain hours, and a lending library, which could be used only by subscribing members.

Salford followed the next year. Warrington was therefore the first English city to establish a municipally-controlled and rate-supported free library, though it was a long way from the free library of the present day.

The first Public Libraries Act of the United Kingdom was passed in 1850. This Act was the product of a Select Committee of the House of Commons. The Committee examined a large number of witnesses, one of the most important being Mr. Edward Edwards,[1] whose name is associated with that of William Ewart, as founders of the English free library system. Mr. Edwards, in his evidence before the Committee, established the fact that in that year (1850), although there were some 250 public libraries on the Continent "easily accessible to the poor as well as to the rich, to the foreigner as well as to the native"; and over 100 in the United States, most of them entirely open to the public; there was "only one free library in Great Britain equally accessible with these numerous libraries abroad, the library founded by Humphrey Chetham in the borough of Manchester."

The Public Libraries Act of 1850 allowed the establishmen. of libraries and museums of art and science, together or separately, but applied only to municipal boroughs in England. "The mayor, on the request of a town council, was to ascertain whether the Act should be adopted by a poll of the burgesses, but a two-thirds majority was required for adoption." No provision was made, however, for buying books or specimens. These were left to the random generosity of some townsman or other.

Several amending acts followed in the next few years, extending the operation of the Act of 1850 to Ireland and Scotland; providing for a penny rate in the pound; for the purchase of books and specimens; the addition of news-rooms, etc. These latter provisions were embodied in the Act of 1855, which repealed the 1850 Act, and remained the principal Act for England and Wales until 1892.

The effect of these Library Acts was felt immediately throughout England. Ewart's first Act (1850) had been passed only about two months when the city of Norwich adopted its provisions by a vote

[1] See "Edward Edwards, the chief pioneer of Municipal Public Libraries," by Thomas Greenwood. London, 1902, pp. 246.

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of 150 to 7. Winchester followed the next year; and in 1860 Birmingham, Bolton, Manchester and Oxford came into line. In 1853 Blackburn and Sheffield in the north, and Cambridge and Ipswich in the east, accepted the new Act. Liverpool had already come in under a local act. Airdrie in Scotland, and Cork in Ireland were the first towns to adopt the Library Act outside of England and Wales. Others followed during the next few years.

In 1869 Mr. Baines, M.P., moved for a return of public libraries, which was furnished to Parliament in 1870. This Return shows, up to the end of 1868, forty-six adoptions of the Act, or local acts equivalent thereto; twenty-nine places had established fifty-two libraries, with nearly half a million volumes and a yearly circulation of 3,400,000 volumes. The amount raised by rate for public libraries and museums was at least £25,400 per annum.

In 1877 a Conference of libraries was held in the lecture theatre of the London Institution—the first gathering of the kind in Europe. Two such conferences had already been held in the United States, the first at New York in 1853, and the second at Philadelphia in 1876, during the Centennial Exhibition. The London Conference was largely an outcome of the Philadelphia meeting, which had been so successful as to encourage English librarians to attempt something of the same kind. There were 218 librarians present, representing 139 libraries, of which the United States contributed 17, France 4, Italy 1, Belgium 1, Denmark 2, Australia 1, and Great Britain and Ireland 113. Out of this Conference grew, among other things, the Library Association of the United Kingdom, the formation of which marked the commencement of a new period in the history of the free library in Great Britain. One of the most important matters discussed at the Conference was the question of printing the catalogue of the British Museum, a colossal undertaking, which was commenced in 1881 and completed by the end of the century. I shall have a few words to say about this catalogue later on.

In 1879 the Birmingham Free Library was destroyed by fire, and a number of irreplaceable literary treasures were lost, including the greater part of the splendid collection of Shakespeariana. Only 1,000 volumes from the reference library of 50,000 were saved from the flames. A new and larger library, however, sprang up in its place, and now ranks among the foremost libraries of England. The new central library was opened on the 1st June, 1882, when speeches were delivered by John Bright, Joseph Chamberlain, and others. It is perhaps worth mentioning that Mr. Bright had also taken a leading part in the inauguration of the Manchester free libraries, some thirty years previously, when, besides his own, speeches were delivered by

Dickens, Thackeray, Bulwer Lytton, Monckton Milnes, and other great men of the day.

Of the libraries of the United Kingdom, the British Museum stands head and shoulders above all others. It is the national library of Great Britain and Ireland—of the British Empire in fact; and in a still broader sense it may be said to be the library *par excellence* of the whole English-speaking world. It is governed by a board of Trustees or Directors, divided into three groups: official, representing State departments and great national institutions; elected, consisting of men of the highest standing in literature, science and art; and family trustees, representing the families which have contributed very important collections to the Museum such as the Sloane, Cottonian and Townley.

For the first sixty years of the Museum's existence, the funds available for purchases and management, outside of the initial funds and gifts, did not average £500 per annum. Later, through the untiring efforts of Sir Anthony Panizzi, the famous head of the Museum, the Government were induced to increase the annual grants, for a time, to £10,000.

The British Museum at first consisted of three departments,—printed books, manuscripts, and natural history; now there are twelve,—four covering natural history, four relating to antiquities, and four literary, *i.e.*, printed books, manuscripts, prints and drawings, and Oriental printed books and manuscripts.

The library now consists of about 2,000,000 volumes, the largest collection in the world, with the possible exception of the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris. The additions of printed books of all descriptions average 46,000 annually. Some forty years ago, Mr. Watts, one of the most learned of the Museum's librarians, made the following striking statement, illustrating the unequalled scope of the Museum library in every department of human knowledge, and in all languages.—"The Museum is now supposed to possess the best Russian library in existence out of Russia, the best Hungarian out of Hungary, the best Dutch out of Holland; in short, the best library in every European language out of the territory in which that language is vernacular. The books are in every case the standard books of the language—the laws, the histories, the biographies, the works on topography and local history, the poets and novelists in most esteem; in short, all that moulds or paints the life and manners of a nation, and which now a student of any European language need travel no further than to the reading-room of the Museum to see and make use of."

The Bodleian Library, at Oxford, ranks next in importance to the British Museum, among English libraries, but as it is a university rather than a public library, it hardly comes within the scope of this paper. It is chiefly famous for the value of its unique collections of manuscripts, and in this department it perhaps ranks even above the British Museum.

The original City Library of London, of which the present Guildhall Library is the legitimate successor, was founded by the executors of the renowned Richard (or Dick) Whityngton, Lord Mayor of London, and of William Bury, early in the fifteenth century. The old City Library fell upon days of indifference and nothing was heard of it for several centuries, until in 1824 it was restored by a resolution in the Court of Common Council. In June, 1828, the library was opened with 1700 volumes. In 1840 these had grown to nearly 10,000; and in 1893 to 68,369 books, besides 38,075 pamphlets. Of late years there has been a movement on foot for the unification of the various free libraries in London, the Guildhall Library to become a central reference library, with a limited number of branch reference libraries systematically distributed throughout the city with due regard to public needs, thus leaving free many of the smaller libraries to development as lending libraries.

Of the free libraries in London, Battersea was established in 1887, and now contains 40,000 volumes. Chelsea opened the same year, and has now about 30,000 volumes. Clerkenwell was established in 1888; Hampstead in 1893; and Lambeth in 1896. Other representative London free libraries are those of Newington, Poplar, Hanover Square, Shoreditch, Wandsworth and St. Martin's.

The most important of the English free libraries outside of London are those of Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Leeds, and Hull. The most important free library in Scotland is that of Edinburgh. The Mitchell Library at Glasgow is an endowed, not a free public library. It was founded by the late Stephen Mitchell, and opened in 1877 with over 14,000 volumes, which have since grown to something over 123,000. The leading Irish free libraries are those at Belfast and Dublin.

The Manchester free library system consists of a central reference library with eleven branches and four reading rooms. There are some 270,000 volumes on the shelves, and the annual circulation averages 2,000,000 volumes.

To Liverpool belongs the honour of having established the earliest branch library; of first introducing into a free library books for the blind, (1857); and book-music (1859).

The Birmingham library dates from 1860, when the Act was adopted by an overwhelming majority, in spite of much opposition. The reference library was opened in 1865. Some instructive remarks have been made by Dr. Langford as to the principles which guided the Birmingham Library Committee in their choice of books — principles which might very well be recommended to the attention of other library committees and librarians: — "The Committee were guided by three principles: first, that the library should as far as practicable represent every phase of human thought and every variety of opinion; second, that books of permanent value and of standard interest should form the principal portion of the library, and that modern and popular books should be added from time to time as they are published; third, that it should contain those rare and costly works which are generally out of the reach of individual students and collectors, and which are not usually found in provincial or private libraries." The third principle could, of course, only be carried out to a limited extent by any but the largest and wealthiest city libraries.

There are now nine branches at Birmingham, besides the central libraries. The number of books at the end of 1895 was nearly 210,000; and the circulation in that year exceeded 1,200,000.

The Leeds Library was established in 1870. Here the system of branches has been carried farther than anywhere else in England. There are altogether some fifty-eight branches, thirty-seven school branches and twenty-one other branches: with about 192,000 volumes.

The public library at Kingston-upon-Hull was established in 1892, after a long fight against bitter and determined opposition. There are two central libraries and two branches ; the number of volumes being, in 1896, 52,588, of which 12,830 were in the two reference libraries.

The Edinburgh Public Library owes its beautiful building to the generosity of that friend of libraries, Andrew Carnegie, who gave £50,000 for the purpose. There are now over 100,000 volumes on the shelves.

The two free libraries in Dublin are comparatively unimportant as compared with the library systems of English cities of the same size. They are, however, only a temporary expedient, and are to be developed into a library worthy of the capital of Ireland. The chief library in Dublin is the National Library of Ireland, an institution which bears somewhat the same relation to Ireland as the British Museum does to England. This library is housed in a building which admirably combines architectural beauty with the requirements of modern librarianship. It is situated close to Leinster House, the home of the Royal Dublin Society.

The Belfast Library dates from 1883. With its branches it now contains about 35,000 volumes.

Mr. J. J. Ogle, in his work on "The Free Library," estimates that in 1897 there were no fewer than six or seven hundred free libraries established in 300 towns, parishes, or districts, under the Public Libraries Acts of the United Kingdom. These libraries then contained 5,000,000 volumes, and had an annual issue of from twenty-five to thirty millions. This estimate does not, of course, include the British Museum, the Bodleian, or other libraries not strictly coming within the class of municipal free libraries. The outstanding loans on free public library property, in England and Wales only, amounted to not less than £800,000, despite the fact of the very considerable gifts of buildings in every part of the country. "But" adds Mr. Ogle "the end is not yet. The movement is yet young, and it is vigorous with the strength and activity of adolescence. The towns will yet show advances neither few nor small ; but the villages, the counties, have yet to reap the advantage the towns enjoy ; the metropolis has yet to do much to equal the provision of the larger provincial centres, whose libraries of twenty, thirty or forty years' formation are one of the glories of this mercantile age."

European Libraries.

One would need the compass of a large volume within which to describe the many famous libraries of Europe, and it is hopeless to attempt even a partial sketch of this wide field. All that can be done here is to mention a few of the more famous and representative libraries. As a matter of fact the public libraries of Europe, outside of England, whether supported by municipalities or by the state, hardly come directly within the scope of this paper, for, with a few notable exceptions, they are in no sense modern, in architecture, methods, or in their relations to the community. On their shelves are found manuscripts, *incunabula*, rare editions and other priceless literary treasures, and in this respect the libraries of America can never hope to compete with them ; but in a majority of cases the libraries of Europe are still mediæval in their methods. They have not adopted the democratic principles of English and American public libraries. They make no special effort to throw their stores of books open in the fullest possible sense to the public.

Of the French libraries, the most important is, of course, the Bibliothèque Nationale, whose history runs back to the days of King John and Charles V. Although this great library is generally counted to be the largest in the world, the question is not without doubt.

Its only rival is the British Museum, but the number of books in the Museum library are known definitely; while the contents of the French National Library have not been actually counted since 1791.

Besides the Bibliothèque Nationale, there are fifteen other libraries in Paris each containing above 30,000 volumes. In the rest of France there are some 350 free public libraries, containing approximately 4,000,000 volumes, and 50,000 MSS.

Germany has many libraries, seventy-two being counted in Berlin alone in 1875, with about 1,300,000 printed books. Munich contains several good libraries; and at Dresden there are about fifty. Stuttgart, Darmstadt, Gotha, are all strong library centres.

In Austria there were in 1873-74 about 550 libraries, only 45 of which were however of a public character. Of the 550, Vienna alone is credited with 101.

The public libraries of Switzerland are numerous, but very small. Some 2000 were recorded in 1868, but of these only 18 had as many as 30,000 volumes.

Italy boasts some of the most famous libraries of Europe, notably the Vatican Library at Rome, the Magliabecchiana and Laurentian libraries at Florence, and the Museo Borbonico at Naples. In 1865 a table of relative statistics was published by the Italian Government, which professed to show the remarkable fact that, with the exception of France, Italy possessed the largest total number of books of any country in Europe, the total contents of French libraries being 4,389,000, and of Italian libraries, 4,149,281.

In Belgium and Holland, great libraries are found at Brussels, Ghent, The Hague, Leyden, etc. Denmark, Norway and Sweden also boast of many notable libraries. At Madrid, in Spain, and Lisbon, in Portugal, the Biblioteca Nacional contains several hundred thousand books and valuable MSS. covering the literature of their respective countries. In Russia, the chief libraries are at St. Petersburg and Moscow.

Libraries in the United States

The history of public libraries in the United States goes back to the early part of the nineteenth century. The Boston Public Library, in fact, claims to trace its existence back to the middle of the seventeenth century, but it was not until nearly two hundred years afterwards that a public library in the modern sense of the term, was established there.

In 1817 Dr. Jesse Torrey, Jr., published a pamphlet entitled "The intellectual torch," in which he made an earnest plea for "the

universal dissemination of knowledge and virtue, by means of free public libraries." This pamphlet is said to be a second edition of an earlier one entitled "The intellectual flambeau," published at Washington in 1816.

The first public library law in America was that passed by the State of New York in 1835. One writer,[1] indeed, states that it was "the first known law of a state allowing the people to tax themselves to maintain genuine, public libraries. The law did not establish libraries for schools (as some have supposed) but for the people, in districts of the size of a school district." In fact, the author of the Act, John A. Dix, Secretary of State for New York, distinctly stated that "The object was not so much for the benefit of children attending school, as for those who have completed their common school education. Its main design was to throw into school districts, and place within the reach of all their inhabitants, a collection of good works on subjects calculated to enlarge their understandings and store their minds with useful knowledge."

This Act provided that :

1. The taxable inhabitants of each school district in the state shall have power, when lawfully assembled at any district meeting, to lay a tax on the district, not exceeding $20 for the first year, for the purchase of a district library, consisting of such books as they shall in their district meeting direct, and such further sum as they may deem necessary for the purchase of a bookcase. The intention to propose such tax shall be stated in the notice required to be given for such meeting.

2. The taxable inhabitants of each school district shall also have power, when so assembled in any subsequent year, to lay a tax not exceeding $10 in any one year, for the purpose of making additions to the district library.

3. The clerk of the district, or such other person as the taxable inhabitants may at their annual meeting designate and appoint by a majority of votes, shall be the librarian of the district, and shall have the care and custody of the library, under such regulations as the inhabitants may adopt for his government.

4. The taxes authorized by this act to be raised, shall be assessed and collected in the same manner as a tax for building a schoolhouse.

Three years after the passing of this act, $55,000 a year was set apart by the State of New York for books and apparatus for school districts, provided the districts would give as much as their pro rata share. The example of New York was soon followed by other States of the Union, both in the east and west, and eventually paved the way to a broader and better system of free public libraries supported by local rates. The school district library reached its highest development between 1838 and 1851. Early in the seventies it was found

[1] Dr. Homes, "Legislation for public libraries," *Library Journal*, July-August, 1879.

to have outlived its usefulness, and was gradually superseded by the present system.[1]

The centre of the free public library system of the State of New York is the State University at Albany, founded in 1784 "to encourage and promote higher education". This unique university now includes 938 institutions and 510 affiliated institutions, making a total of 1448. Under the system in vogue, when a town or village wishes to establish a public library, the local trustees obtain a charter from the university, which entitles them to a state grant (not exceeding $200) equal to the amount raised for the library by local effort. The library then becomes an integral part of the State University. The state library at Albany is the heart of the whole system. Here an efficient Library School is maintained for the training of librarians and their assistants; from here an Inspector visits the various libraries throughout the State, and keeps them up to a proper standard of efficiency; from here travelling libraries are sent forth to various centres—there are now about 500 of these travelling libraries moving about the State. The various libraries are kept in touch with the central department, and every possible assistance is given to librarians and library trustees, by means of reports, circulars, bulletins, personal advice, assistance in planning library buildings, lists of best books, and public addresses and discussions.

The public library movement in Massachusetts may be said to be almost as old as the colony. One Captain Robert Keayne, an eccentric tailor, founded the first public library in Boston by a legacy of books and money. This early progenitor of the present magnificent library was housed, in 1658, in a room in the markethouse. It was not, however, until 1848 that Boston secured legal authority to establish and maintain a public library. Gifts of books and money at once began to come in for the purpose, but the library was not formally established until 1852. The present splendid collection of books had for its nucleus a gift of about fifty volumes from the city of Paris in 1843, "through the efforts of an enthusiastic Frenchman named Vattemare, who proposed to build up libraries through a system of international exchanges". The Boston Public Library is now the largest and most thoroughly organized free public library in the world.

Boston was the pioneer in library extension in the State, but a general law was soon passed, which was rapidly taken advantage of

[1] The district library system was adopted by Massachusetts and Michigan in 1837; Connecticut in 1839; Rhode Island and Iowa in 1840; Indiana, 1841; Maine, 1844; Ohio, 1847; Wisconsin, 1847; Missouri, 1853; California and Oregon, 1854; Illinois, 1855; Kansas and Virginia, 1870; New Jersey, 1871; Kentucky and Minnesota 1873; and Colorado, 1876.

throughout Massachusetts. In 1890, when the Free Public Libraries Commission was established, there were 248 out of the 341 towns in the commonwealth, that enjoyed such privileges. In 1899 there were only seven towns that were still without a free library, and these comprised less than one-half of one per cent of the population. I have not the figures of the past year before me, but think it very probable that even some of the benighted seven have ere this joined the enlightened majority by establishing public libraries in their midst.

In the free libraries of Massachusetts there were, in 1899, some 3,750,000 volumes, with an annual circulation of 7,666,666, or over three volumes to every inhabitant. The amount given for libraries and library buildings in Massachusetts in the shape of gifts and bequests, reaches in money alone the sum of over $8,000,000.

In an exhaustive and very valuable monograph upon "Public Libraries and Popular Education," by Herbert B. Adams, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of American and institutional history in Johns Hopkins University, the following list is given, admirably illustrating the evolution of the American library. Dr. Adams calls it a "select list of original library types":—

1. The private libraries of early colonists.

2. The institutional or scholastic libraries of Harvard, Yale, William & Mary colleges, etc.

3. The church or parish libraries instituted in North Carolina, Maryland, and the South by Dr. Bray, founder and Secretary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

4. The co-operative or joint-stock library, *e.g.*, the Philadelphia Library Company, founded by Benjamin Franklin in 1731, which antedates by 25 years the first subscription library in England (Liverpool, 1756).[1]

5. The first theological library in America was that of St. Mary's theological seminary of St. Sulpice, Baltimore, 1791.

6. The first law library was that of the Bar Association of Philadelphia, 1802.

7. The first medical library was at Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia, 1763.

8 The first scientific libraries were those of the American Philosophical Society, Philadelphia, 1743; and of the American Academy of Arts & Sciences, Boston, 1780.

9. The first State Historical Society library was that of Massachusetts, founded at Boston, 1791.

10. The first foreign nationality to establish a library was the German Society of Philadelphia, 1764.

11. The first town library was in Salisbury, Ct., 1803, or at Peterborough, N.H., 1833.

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[1] This is incorrect. A subscription library was established in Edinburgh as early as 1725, and in London in 1740. The Liverpool (Lyceum) Library was founded in 1758, not 1756.

12. The Congressional Library was founded at Washington in 1800.

13. The first formal state library was that of New Jersey, established in 1796.

14. Young men's mercantile libraries were founded in Boston and New York in 1820.

15. School district libraries were authorized by law in 1835.

16. Endowed libraries were instituted at many different times and places.

17. Free public libraries, as progressive institutions, belong to the latter half of the nineteenth century.

18. The federal or confederate type of public libraries, like those now grouped together in New York as the New York Public Library, by consolidation of the Astor and Lenox libraries with the Tilden.

19. The travelling library is the latest and one of the most popular types of public libraries. It best represents library extension.

The American library which bears the closest resemblance to the British Museum, as a national institution, is the Library of Congress. This library has had a chequered career. Established in 1800, it was burned, together with the Capitol, during the war of 1812, by the British army. In 1851 another fire destroyed all but 20,000 of the books. Since then the library has grown rapidly, and now numbers close upon a million books and pamphlets. As in the case of the British Museum and the Bodleian Library at Oxford, the Library of Congress is entitled by law to receive two copies of every publication which claims copyright. The magnificent new building in which the library is housed, is furnished with every modern convenience for the safety and convenient use of the books.

The Boston Public Library at present contains something over 750,000 volumes. It has been the recipient of many valuable gifts in books and money from its broad-minded citizens, the most notable being Joshua Bates, after whom the stately Bates Hall is named, Theodore Parker and George Ticknor the publisher. Josiah Quincy, mayor of Boston, gave the following graphic description of the library and its work for the public, in the *Saturday Evening Post* (Philadelphia), June 3rd, 1899:—

"The work of our public library is of such a comprehensive character that it partakes very largely of the nature of a popular university, and comes very near to constituting an example of municipal socialism carried into practice. Our library plant—building, books and equipment—represents an investment of at least $5,000,000. Three hundred and fifty persons are employed in connection with its service, and it costs the city over a quarter of a million dollars a year to maintain it. Besides the central library, we have 10 branch libraries, containing independent collections of books, and 18 delivery stations. There are outstanding 65,000 active cards for a population of 530,000 people. Over 700 readers are generally to be found in the central building alone, and about 1,250,000 books are annually issued to card holders for use at home. The people of Boston contribute nearly half a

dollar annually per capita for the support of this great institution, and I doubt whether a community can be found anywhere in the world which taxes itself as heavily to provide library facilities, or which makes a larger use of them."

In addition to the 10 branches and 18 delivery stations mentioned by Mr. Quincy, there are also 33 other places—public schools, engine houses, etc.,—where books are regularly received on deposit. This makes a total of 61 outlying agencies of the library.[1]

The New York Public Library is a new institution, in which are merged the Astor, Lenox and Tilden Libraries. It is possible that before long the New York Circulating Library may also be included in the general scheme, thus constituting one of the largest libraries in America. Dr. John S. Billings, a man of broad views and ripe experience, has charge of the amalgamated libraries. A splendid library building is now in course of erection in Bryant Park, and Mr. Carnegie has offered an enormous sum for the establishment of branch libraries in every quarter of Greater New York. The popularity of the New York libraries may be gauged from the fact that the daily combined average number of readers at the Astor and Lenox Libraries was found in 1899 to be 488 ; while the average attendance at the British Museum, with over three times the number of books, was only 516. The New York Public Library, as at present constituted, contains in the neighbourhood of 700,000 volumes.

The New York Free Circulating Library was first incorporated in 1880. There are at present 10 branches, with over 100,000 books. No central library exists, but books are sent from one branch to another as required, and there is a general catalogue of all the branches. This library system is almost entirely supported by private subscriptions, but it is free to the public, nothing but a guarantee being required for an intending card-holder.

One of the most remarkable examples of a modern public library system is that of Philadelphia. Here the modern idea of supplementing the central library by outlying branches has been carried a long step further by practically abolishing the central repository altogether, and relying upon the branches alone—going to the people in their own neighbourhoods, instead of making them travel to a distant central library. Travelling libraries are another popular feature of the Philadelphia system.

At Philadelphia is also to be found the oldest proprietory or subscription library in the United States—the Library Company of Philadelphia. This project was originally set on foot by Benjamin

[1] It appears by a recent report that these 61 agencies have now (1902) been increased to 87.

Franklin in 1731. The collection combines the character of a public and a subscription library, being open to the public for reference purposes, while the books circulate only among the subscribing members. It numbers at present about 130,000 books.

Other American proprietory libraries are the Mercantile Library Company of Philadelphia, the Boston Athenæum, the Mercantile Library of New York, the Apprentices' Library of New York, etc. None of these, however, are, strictly speaking, free public libraries.

The Buffalo Public Library was originally incorporated in 1837, but it was a subscription library until 1897, when it was taken over by the city. It now contains in the neighbourhood of 100,000 books, with about 10,000 pamphlets. The advantages of a free public, over a subscription, library is forcibly illustrated by the fact that while the year previous to the transfer of the Buffalo library to the city, the entire circulation of books was only 142,659, in four months from the public opening in September, 1897, it had increased to 262,232, and in 1898 to 768,028 volumes. An interesting feature of the Buffalo library is its close connection with the public school system of the city. Mr. Elmendorf, the superintendent of the library, in his annual report for 1897, says: "The library is in the closest co-operation with the high schools. An assistant visits each school before the opening hour on every school day, receives books to be returned and lists of books wanted, and makes delivery at the close of school; plans are being made in connection with the Superintendent of Public Education to include all schools of the city in a travelling library system." In 1898 Buffalo had 40 travelling libraries reaching schools, literary clubs, chapter houses and social settlements.

Another American library that has made special efforts to do educational work, both through its reference and circulating departments, is the Reynolds Library at Rochester. Mr. George F. Bowerman, formerly reference librarian at the Reynolds Library, thus describes the method adopted to make that library of value to students,— to make it in fact a centre of post-school education: —

"Early in every scholastic year, that is, in August or September, the managers of University Extension courses, the secretaries of literary societies, reading clubs, etc., are invited to send in their courses of study for the season, together with the list of books which they wish for their use. Any books on these lists which the library does not have are ordered, and the books laid down in each course are brought together and reserved in the reference room for the club members during the season. As soon as one course was finished the books would go back into the circulating department and their places

be occupied by those of another course. In supplying these clubs with the books necessary for carrying on their studies we are able to make a comparatively small library of great educational use."

The Osterhout Free Library, at Wilkesbarre, Penn., is an interesting architectural example of a church building transferred into a library. Special attention is directed here to the children's department. The librarian, Miss H. P. James, says of this department of her library: — "In selecting our books, I was careful to leave out all sensational reading and give the preference to stories with some historical basis. We have a good store of Henty's books, and have appended a note to each entry, showing the time of the incidents covered. Of course we have also all the books of Coffin, Drake, Knox, Butterworth, French and Scudder. In the reference room I have a goodly constituency of small readers with ragged clothes, not very clean faces, but their hands are clean. The lavatory close by the door is visited before they come to me for books, as they have learned that it is indispensable. I feared that the beauty of the room might be a little forbidding, but they don't mind it in the least. A better behaved set than the little ragamuffins are, it would be hard to find." This feature of modern librarianship—the reaching out after the children, bringing them into the library, placing them at their ease in a special room where tables and chairs are made to fit their small bodies, and providing them with the books they desire — is one of the most notable and praiseworthy developments in American libraries. Nearly all the best city libraries in the United States have special provision for children, a children's department, where they are welcomed sympathetically, and taught at the very threshold of life to cultivate the love of reading and the love of good books.

One of the largest and most progressive of the western libraries is that of Cincinnati, which was established on its present footing in 1867. It contains about 150,000 books, besides pamphlets. The main library is a very handsome and well-equipped building, and there are two branches besides.

The Newberry Library, in Chicago, is chiefly notable on account of its unique plan for classifying and arranging books, devised and carried out by Dr. Poole, the original compiler of that famous and indispensable work, "Poole's Index." In the Newberry Library the several branches of human knowledge are shelved in different rooms, arranged on a symmetrical plan, with provision for the addition of other rooms as the growth of the library should call for further subdivision. The building is simple in form, but substantially constructed, and provided with every modern library convenience. Carrying out Mr. Poole's plan, the books are not shelved in stacks, but in a single

tier of cases covering the floor of each room, with room for readers' tables.

Space will not permit me to describe the many other prominent libraries of the United States, such as the Chicago Public Library, San Francisco Public, the popular and exceedingly energetic library at Denver, the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, the Peabody Institute at Baltimore, etc.

From a report issued by the United States Bureau of Education, it appears that in 1900 there were 5,383 public, society and school libraries in the United States having one thousand volumes or over. These libraries contained altogether 44,591,851 volumes and 7,503,588 pamphlets. The number of manuscripts is not stated, but outside of a few of the largest libraries they would be insignificant. Of the individual states, New York ranks first, with 718 libraries, containing 7,490,509 volumes and 1,803,828 pamphlets. Massachusetts comes second, with 571 libraries, 6,633,285 volumes, and 1,150,277 pamphlets. Pennsylvania is third, with 401 libraries, 3,974,577 volumes, and 538,819 pamphlets. Illinois follows next, with 309 libraries; then Ohio, with 266; and California, with 212. Eleven other States have between 100 and 200 libraries each. The remainder run from 96 in Vermont down to Arizona and the Indian Territory, which possess 5 and 3 libraries respectively.

I will venture to sum up this hasty sketch of United States libraries by quoting from an address delivered by Mr. Melvil Dewey at Convocation of the University of the State of New York, 1888. Mr. Dewey said, speaking of the progress of libraries and librarianship in the United States: —

> We date active progress from 1876, when, after a four days' successful conference in Philadelphia, the American Library Association was organized. It holds annual meetings, marked among conventions by their practical work and enthusiasm. The same year we started an official monthly organ, the *Library Journal* (now, 1902, in its 27th year). Shortly after followed that most important practical factor in library work, the Library Bureau of Boston, which undertakes to do for libraries such work as is not practicable for the association or magazine. It equips large or small libraries with everything needed (except books and periodicals) of the best patterns devised by or known to the officers and committees of the association, of which it is the tangible representative for manufacturing and distributing improved appliances and supplies. Ten years after the *Journal*, which, because of its limited circulation, barely pays expenses at $5 a year, came its co-labourer, *Library Notes*, a quarterly magazine of librarianship, specially devoted to the modern methods and spirit, and circulated widely because of its low price. Last of the great steps came the school for training librarians and cataloguers, which two years ago (1887) was opened at Columbia College, through the same influence which had before started the Association, *Journal*, Bureau and *Notes*. You who appreciate what Normal Schools are doing to improve

our teaching will remember that librarians need a training school more than teachers, who have had the experience of their own school life as a pattern; for librarians till two years ago never had opportunity for training, and came to their work like teachers who had been self-taught, and not only had no normal school advantages, but had never been in a school or classroom even as pupils. As evidence of the growth of the idea, we may note that this library school, which began two years ago with a twelve weeks' course and provision for 5 to 10 pupils, has in two years developed to a course of full two years with four times as many students at work, and in spite of rapidly increased requirements for admission is to-day embarrassed by five times as many candidates as it can receive. This means a recognition of the high calling of the modern librarian who works in the modern spirit with the high ideals which the school holds before its pupils.

It should be mentioned that this plan for a library school originated with Mr. Dewey himself. Some eight years before the first library school was established in the United States, the British Library Association passed a resolution in favour of training library assistants in the general principles of their profession, but nothing practical came of the suggestion at the time. Since then a library summer school has been established, under the auspices of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, but it is inferior to the American schools in every way. We must look on this side of the Atlantic for the most phenomenal progress in this branch of librarianship. Since the first Library School was established at Columbia College, in 1887, similar institutions have sprung up all over the United States. In 1889 Mr. Dewey transferred the Columbia College School to the New York State Library at Albany. Here he organized the school upon a sound and permanent basis, with a strong faculty, and a thorough course of training, leading up to the degree of B.L.S. (bachelor of library science), given only to those students who pass the entire course with honours. A summer course is also offered by this school, for the benefit of persons who already hold a library position and wish to gain a broader conception of library work as a whole.

Other library schools are those at the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn; at the Drexel Institute, Philadelphia; and at the University of Illinois, where library economy has been given a regular place among the college courses. At Madison, under the auspices of the State University, is another school, the Wisconsin Summer School of Library Science. Professor Wm. I. Fletcher, whose valuable continuation of Poole's *Index* most of us know the value of, established a library school at Amherst College in 1891, which he personally conducts for five weeks in midsummer. Lastly may be mentioned the Washington School of Library Science, organized in 1897 at Columbian University, and in which instruction is given in every department of library economy and administration.

Public Libraries of Australia, etc.

To mention merely the names of the chief Australian and other Colonial public libraries, outside of Canada, is about as much as can be attempted here.

The chief public library in Australia is that at Melbourne, established in 1853. It now contains considerably over 100,000 volumes, with about 25,000 pamphlets. The library is supported by an annual Parliamentary vote of about £5,000 or £6,000. Readers are admitted without any formality and have free access to the shelves.

Next in importance to the Melbourne Library is that at Sydney, which is said to contain the largest collection of works on Australasia. Other public libraries have been established in New South Wales, at Newcastle, Bathurst, Albury and elsewhere.

There are several other considerable libraries in Melbourne, in addition to the Public Library, and outside of the capital, the State of Victoria contains public libraries at Ballarat, Castlemaine, Geelong, and many other places.

In Queensland, the chief public library is at Brisbane. There is also a flourishing library at Adelaide, in South Australia; and another at Perth, in Western Australia. Tasmania contains public libraries at Hobart and Launceton; and New Zealand, at Auckland, Christchurch, Dunedin and Wellington.

In Cape Colony, the most important library is that at Cape Town—the South African Public Library, which was established as long ago as 1818. It now contains 100,000 volumes, including the collection bequeathed by Sir George Grey, comprising besides MSS. and early printed books, an unrivalled collection of works in the native languages of Africa, Australia, etc.

Outside of Cape Town, there are (if they have survived the war) public libraries at Cradock, East London, Graff Reinet, Grahamstown, Kimberley, King Williamstown and Port Elizabeth. In Natal there are public libraries at Pietermaritzburg, Durban, etc.; and in Rhodesia, at Bulawayo.[1]

[1] The following list of South African libraries appeared in the February number of *The Library World*, London, 1902:—

Cape Colony.

Name of Library.	*Estab.*	*No. of Books.*
Cape Town	1818	100,000
Port Elizabeth	1848	36,216
Grahamstown	1863	15,387
Kimberley	1882	23,843

In the West Indies, public libraries have been established at Antigua, Barbados, Nassau (Jamaica), Grenada and Trinidad. There is a public library at Port Louis, on the Island of Mauritius; two at Colombo, Ceylon; one at Singapore, one at Malacca, another at Penang, and finally, one at Hong Kong.

Canadian Public Libraries.

The history of free public libraries in Canada is almost too recent for consideration at the present time. Outside of the Province of Ontario, they may be numbered upon one's fingers—with a good margin over. Of course if one takes account of other than municipal free libraries—which is the especial field of this paper—the showing is a trifle more creditable. In a report published in 1893 by the United States Bureau of Education, relating to public libraries, detailed statistics are given of the various libraries of Canada.[1] From these statistics it appears that, in 1891, there were altogether some 202 public libraries in the Dominion,[2] containing 1,392,366 volumes and 86,544 pamphlets. Of these, 152 libraries, or over three-quarters of the entire number, with 821,198 books and 42,134 pamphlets, were in Ontario; 27 libraries, or over on-half of the remaining number with 459,781 volumes and 31,073 pamphlets, were in Quebec; and the remainder were scattered over the other provinces. Of the 202 libraries, only 17 were strictly speaking free public libraries. There

Natal.

Name of Library.	*Estab.*	*No. of Books.*
Pietermaritzburg	1851	11,261
Durban	1853	12,368
Verulam	1857	2,794
Richmond Inst.	1865	2,500
Ladysmith	1872	
Pinetown	1873	1,100
Greytown Inst.	1874	2,759
Eastcourt	1875	2,300
Ixopo	1880	2,310
Newcastle	1880	3,200
Isipingo	1880	
Howick Jubilee	1883	1,022
Polela	1885	500
Harding Circulating	1886	400
Dundee	1891	
Sterk Spruit	1896	450
Stanger	1898	419

[1] Prepared by Mr. James Bain, Jr., Chief Librarian of the Toronto Public Library.

[2] These include only libraries containing at least 1,000 volumes.

were 109 Mechanics Institutes, all in Ontario, with the exception of one at Sherbrooke, P. Q. (The Ontario Mechanics Institutes have since been transformed into public libraries by an Act of the Legislature of Ontario.) Of the rest, 37 were university and college libraries; 19 law libraries; 8 parliamentary; and the remainder medical, historical and scientific.[1]

The oldest library in Canada is that of Laval University, Quebec, founded about 200 years ago. It now contains over 100,000 volumes, besides a large number of very valuable manuscripts relating to the early history of Canada.

The earliest subscription or co-operative library in Canada was the Quebec Library, established in 1779.[2] On January 7th, 1779, the following advertisement appeared in the *Quebec Gazette*:—

"A subscription has been commenced for establishing a publick library for the city and district of Quebec. It has met with the approbation of His Excellency the Governor-General and of the Bishop, and it is hoped that the institution, so particularly useful in this country, will be generally encouraged. A list of those who have already subscribed is lodged at the Secretary's Office, where those who chuse it, may have an opportunity to add there names. The subscribers are requested to attend at the Bishop's Palace, at 12 o'clock, the 15th instant, in order to chuse trustees for the Library."

The meeting was duly held, and resulted in the election of a board of trustees, and the passing of certain regulations for the governance of the library. The subscription was placed at £5 on entering, and £2 annually afterwards. Books were only lent out to subscribers. The public were assured that "no books contrary to religion or good morals, would be permitted." In 1822 the library had been removed from the Bishop's Palace and occupied rooms on St. Peter Street, in the Lower Town. There were then some 4,000 volumes on the shelves.

In 1843 another library was established at Quebec, known as the Quebec Library Association. Some years afterwards the old Quebec Library amalgamated with the Library Association. In 1854 the Parliament Buildings were destroyed by fire, and a large portion of the books of the Quebec Library Association, which had been housed there, were burnt. In 1866 a catalogue was printed showing 6990 volumes in the library; and the following year the books were sold to the Quebec Literary and Historical Society; and the Quebec Library

[1] See Appendix for further statistics regarding Canadian public libraries.

[2] A very interesting account of the origin and history of the library of the Literary & Historical Society, and of the Quebec Library, and Quebec Library Association, by Mr. Frederick C. Würtele, will be found in the Transactions of the Lit. and Hist. Soc. of Quebec, No. 19, 1889, pp. 29-70.

Association, with the original Quebec Library, came to an end. The Quebec Literary and Historical Society, which was founded in 1824, chiefly through the instrumentality of the then Governor General, the Earl of Dalhousie, has been an important factor in the intellectual life of Quebec ever since. It has published a number of volumes of valuable transactions; and its library now contains some 25,000 books and pamphlets.

The only other libraries of any importance in the Province of Quebec are those of McGill University, established in 1855, and now containing 89,000 volumes, besides about 10,000 pamphlets (McGill is the only Canadian library using Cutter's Expansive System); the Fraser Institute, Montreal, endowed by Hugh Fraser, opened in 1885, and now containing 39,000 volumes; and the Sherbrooke Library and Art Union, the only remaining example of the once popular Mechanics Institutes, which spread from England to America many years ago, and in their day did good work. Their places are now, however, much more effectively in every way taken by public libraries supported by municipal rates, and open to the public in the widest possible sense.

Among Canadian libraries the premier place must, of course, be given to the Library of Parliament at Ottawa, an institution which bears (*or ought to bear*) a somewhat similar relation to Canada, to that occupied by the Library of Congress, and the British Museum, in their respective countries. It is housed in a building which may be said without exaggeration to be the most beautiful library building in America,—if we except the mural decorations of the Boston Public Library, and of the Library of Congress. It is questionable, however, whether the Library of Parliament is, even relatively, of the same value to Canadian scholars and students as the great national libraries of England and the United States. This is not through any particular fault of the staff, who are almost uniformly courteous and obliging, but mainly because of the antiquated and cumbrous system by which the library is managed, and the absence of any desire on the part of the authorities to make the library one truly national in scope and helpfulness, rather than purely and simply a library for the use of members of Parliament during the few months of the session. Surely, librarians and the friends of libraries in Canada, are not unreasonable when they hope for the inauguration of a more effective and far-reaching policy as respects the Library of Parliament; a policy which will make that library, with its really splendid collections of books, the centre for all that is best in modern librarianship, a source of inspiration and helpfulness to other Canadian libraries, and of wide usefulness to

scholars and students and all who may seek information from its increasing stores of books. It will then be in the truest sense a national library.

Of public libraries, in the stricter sense of the term, the great majority, as has already been stated, are in Ontario, and the chief of these is the Public Library at Toronto, with its five very active branches. This library system, under the able direction of Mr. James Bain, is doing, in a perfectly unostentatious way, a splendid work in Toronto. It reaches, through its branches, every quarter of the city, and its reference library is one of the best in Canada. In its methods it aims to make the library of the widest possible helpfulness to the community, and to keep its books, not on the shelves, but in the houses of the people. There are now some 111,725 volumes in the main library and branches, of which 37,297 are in the reference department of the main library.

Next in importance to the Toronto Public Library is that at Hamilton, in which several admirable features of modern library management have been adopted, with ample success. The books are classified according to the Dewey System, and an indicator is in use for the assistance of readers. There are at present 28,000 books on the shelves.

The most important of the other public libraries in Ontario are those at London, Brantford, Guelph, Kingston, Preston, St. Catharines, Lindsay, Berlin, St. Thomas, Waterloo, Sarnia and Stratford.

In the Lower Provinces there are only two municipal free libraries, one at St. John, and the other at Halifax. Both are doing good work in their respective communities, and the Halifax Library, especially, has lately been re-organized and re-classified on a modern basis. A printed catalogue, arranged on the Dewey System, was published in 1900. There are at present some 13,000 volumes in the library. The St. John Library contains about 11,000.

The only public libraries in the west are those at Winnipeg, Victoria, Vancouver and New Westminster. These libraries are still in their infancy, but will doubtless prove a boon to the people, and lead to the establishment of similar libraries in other western Canadian towns.

Two features of the Ontario library system that are bound to bear an increasing influence upon the development and usefulness of public libraries in the province, are the existence of a carefully constructed Provincial Act governing the establishment and maintenance of public libraries; and the organization of the Ontario Library Association. The latter, although only a year or two old, is already making its influence markedly felt not only upon the libraries in the province,

but indirectly throughout the Dominion, in encouraging the establishment of modern methods and appliances, and generally making our public libraries of wide educational value.

It would not be just to close this brief sketch of the present state of Canadian public libraries, without mentioning the munificent generosity of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. The same broad-minded spirit which has led Mr. Carnegie to build public libraries in almost every quarter of his adopted country, and throughout his native Scotland, now embraces Canada as well. In Ottawa, Halifax, Vancouver, Winnipeg and many other Canadian cities and towns, our people have good reason to appreciate the munificence of the great steel maker.[1]

Catalogues and Cataloguing.

Modern cataloguing dates from the famous code of ninety-one rules, prepared under the direction of Sir Anthony Panizzi, greatest of modern librarians, and published in 1841. These rules were prepared for use in the British Museum, of which Panizzi was then Keeper, but they have since been adopted, with certain changes and modifications, by most of the libraries and librarians of England and America. When these rules were considered before the Royal Commission appointed in 1847 to inquire into the constitution and government of the Museum, some curious evidence was adduced. Even such eminent librarians as Mr. J. G. Cochrane, of the London Library, objected to the rules *in toto*, maintaining that "they were more calculated to perplex and to mystify than to answer any useful purpose." When Mr. Cochrane was asked the question "Do you object to rules in

[1] The following is a list of the gifts of Mr. Carnegie to Canadian libraries, up to the end of April, 1902:—

Berlin, Ont.	$ 15,000	Sault Ste. Marie, Ont.	$ 10,000
Chatham, Ont.	15,000	Sherbrooke, Que.	15,000
Collingwood, Ont.	12,500	Smith's Falls, Ont.	10,000
Cornwall, Ont.	7,000	St. Catharines, Ont.	20,000
Goderich, Ont.	10,000	St. John, N.B.	50,000
Guelph, Ont.	20,000	St. Thomas, Ont.	15,000
Halifax, N.S.	75,000	Stratford, Ont.	12,000
Lindsay, Ont.	10,000	Sydney, N.S.	15,000
London, Ont.	10,000	Vancouver, B.C.	50,000
Montreal, Que.	150,000	Victoria, B.C.	50,000
Ottawa, Ont.	100,000	Windsor, Ont.	20,000
Palmerston, Ont.	6,000	Winnipeg, Man.	100,000
Pembroke, Ont.	10,000	Yarmouth, N.S.	4,000
Sarnia, Ont.	15,000		

This makes a total of $826,500, to which may be added $50,000 for a library in St. John's, Newfoundland.

any compilation of catalogues?" He said, "Yes, very much." Many witnesses strongly objected to the rule that whoever wanted a book must look it out in the catalogue, and copy the title on a slip with the press-mark before he could receive it—a rule that has since been almost universally adopted in public libraries. Mr. Carlyle, with characteristic crankiness, preferred to get his books elsewhere rather than submit to the rule. "I had occasion" he says, "at one time to consult a good many of the pamphlets respecting the Civil War period of the history of England. I supposed these pamphlets to be standing in their own room, on shelves contiguous to each other. I marked on the paper 'King's Pamphlets' such and such a number, giving a description undeniably pointing to the volume; and the servant to whom I gave this paper at first said that he could not serve me with the volume, and that I must find it out in the catalogue and state the press-mark, and all the other formalities. Being a little provoked with that state of things, I declared that I would not seek for the book in that form; that I could get no good out of these pamphlets on such terms; that I must give them up rather, and go my ways, and try to make the grievance known in some proper quarter."

Professor Charles Coffin Jewett, of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, prepared a code of cataloguing rules, which he published in 1853 in a pamphlet entitled "Smithsonian Report on the Construction of Catalogues of Libraries, and their Publication by means of Separate Titles, with Rules and Examples." Mr. Jewett's rules were founded upon those of the British Museum; some of them are verbatim; others conform more to rules advocated by Panizzi but not finally sanctioned by the Trustees of the Museum. Jewett's rules are classified as follows: pp. 1-45, Titles; pp. 45-56, Headings; pp. 57-59, Cross-references; pp. 59-62, Arrangement; pp. 62, 63, Maps, engravings, etc.; p. 64, Exceptional cases. These rules, with some exceptions and modifications, were afterwards adopted by the Boston Public Library.

Another code of rules founded largely upon Panizzi's, was that drawn up at Cambridge University—"Rules to be observed in forming the Alphabetical Catalogue of Printed Books in the University Library." With the exception of some alterations made in 1879, these rules, forty-nine in all, now stand substantially as originally adopted.

The rules of the Library Association of the United Kingdom were originally formed for the purpose of making a foundation for a gigantic work suggested by the late Mr. Cornelius Walford,—a Catalogue of English Literature. The plan for this catalogue fell through, but the rules remained, and were adapted to the purposes of a general library catalogue. They have been amended on several occasions since.

The Library Association rules were at one time adopted for the catalogue of the Bodleian Library, but in 1882 Mr. Edward B. Nicholson, the librarian, arranged and had printed a set of "Compendious Cataloguing Rules for the Author-Catalogue of the Bodleian Library," which has since been added to, and now numbers sixty rules.

But the most important of all these codes of cataloguing rules is undoubtedly Mr. Charles A. Cutter's "Rules for a Printed Dictionary Catalogue," first published in 1876 as the second part of the "Special Report on Public Libraries in the United States." Mr. Cutter not only goes much more minutely into every division and sub-division of his subject than any of his predecessors, but he also sets out clearly and forcibly the reasons on which each rule is founded, making his work of inestimable benefit to the librarian, and especially to the cataloguer. Mr. H. B. Wheatley, the well-known English librarian, while strongly combatting many of Cutter's rules, and the arguments advanced in support of them, acknowledges fully and frankly that "it would be difficult to find anywhere in so small a space so many sound bibliographical principles elucidated."

Mr. Wheatley's own little book, "How to Catalogue a Library," is an extremely interesting and instructive contribution to the available literature on the subject. It furnishes, in compact and lucid form, a statement of the first principles of cataloguing, with an impartial discussion of the most notable codes, English and American.

The American Library Association, like its sister body of Great Britain, has also put forth a collection of rules, entitled "Condensed Rules for an Author and Title Catalog."

Another American work on the subject is Mr. F. B. Perkins' "Cataloguing for Public Libraries," San Francisco.

Two codes of rules for card catalogues are Mr. Melvil Dewey's "Library School Card Catalog Rules"; and Mr. K. A. Linderfelt's "Eclectic Card Catalogue Rules; Author and Title Entries." Mr. Linderfelt's elaborate work is based on the German code of Dziatzko, librarian of the Breslau Library, compared with the rules of the British Museum, Cutter, Dewey, Perkins, and other authorities.

In his article on "Cataloguing"—one of the "Papers Prepared for the World's Library Congress"—Mr. Wm. C. Lane, Librarian of the Boston Athenæum, summarizes the points of general agreement in regard to a library catalogue. These points are briefly as follows:—

1. The necessity of a comprehensive and detailed card catalogue.

If a carefully made and reasonably full printed catalogue exists, the card catalogue may form simply a supplement to this, but if the printed catalogue be only a finding list, or short-title catalogue, the card catalogue should be complete in itself.

Its forms are various: in drawers, in trays open on a counter, in sliding trays, in a Rudolph indexer, or slips mounted on the leaves of a book. In any case the point to be provided for is the possibility of inserting new titles indefinitely in strict alphabetic or other specified order.

2. On this catalogue every work should have at least an author or (when this is impossible, as in the case of anonymous works, periodicals, etc.) a title entry.

A common English custom is to use for certain classes of works, form or subject entry *only*; such are, almanacs, catalogues, society or academy publications, periodicals, etc. The nearly universal American usage is to treat these works like any other.

3. In addition to author or title entry most works should also be entered under the name of the subject of which they treat.

4. The author's name should if possible be given in the vernacular, unless all his works have been published in some other language than that of his own nationality. Latin must often be considered the vernacular of mediæval names.

5. On author cards titles should be brief, and the author's name and bibliographic details should be given in full. On subject cards the title should be fuller and descriptive, but the author's name may be given with initials only, and some of the more technical or minute bibliographic details may be omitted.

6. In transcribing titles the words and spelling of the title-page should be strictly adhered to, any addition or deviation being plainly indicated by brackets.

In addition to the above main points of agreement, there are several smaller matters on which substantial unanimity exists. These are, as to the treatment of names with prefixes, compound names, capitals, numerals, periodicals, names beginning with Mc or St, and reports of trials.

There are several different forms, and several different kinds of catalogue, in use. The chief forms are: Printed catalogue, with printed supplements. Printed catalogue, with card supplement. On cards complete. On slips pasted in volumes—the British Museum plan. On slips fastened in bunches like the leaves of a book—the Leyden plan; which is also being tried at Harvard. The Rudolph Indexer or books. To these may be added; printed finding-lists or other abbreviated forms of catalogues; and, printed bulletins of recent accessions. Of these forms, the printed and the manuscript, or a combination of both, are in chief favour in England; while the popular form in the United States is the card catalogue. In Australia and in Canada the practice is somewhat haphazard, opinion seeming to be impartially divided among all the various forms.

The kinds of catalogues[1] may be divided into two general classes—those in which author and subject entries are distinct and separate; and those in which author and subject entries are combined in a single alphabet. The former class may be subdivided into four smaller groups:

A. Subject catalogues in dictionary form.

B. Classified on the decimal system (Dewey's).

C. Classified on some other system (Cutter's, Harris', etc).

D. Alphabetico-classed subject catalogue, i.e., a catalogue having general classes in alphabetic sequence, with alphabetic subdivisions.

Of the several systems of classification, the decimal system devised by Mr. Melvil Dewey is most generally used. It has been adopted by a large majority of public libraries in the United States, and is making considerable headway in England. It is also used in a few Canadian and Australian libraries. It has won the approval of several leading European librarians, but has as yet been adopted by very few, if any, libraries on the Continent. The decimal system has been fully described by Mr. Dewey in an elaborate paper published in the "Special Report on Public Libraries in the United States" (pp. 623-648). Under this system the whole field of human knowledge is divided into ten classes; each of these is then sub-divided into ten divisions of the main class; and each of these, again, is further sub-divided into ten. This sub-division may, of course, be carried out indefinitely, and thus provide for the most minute classification. It is this division into tens that gives the system the name of decimal. The main classes are: General Works, Philosophy, Sociology, Philology, Natural Science, Useful Arts, Fine Arts, Literature, History. The chief advantage claimed for the system is its adaptability to the needs of any library, large or small, general or special. As an instance of the minuteness with which the classification may be carried out, take the case of a work on Strikes. The number for this would be 331.89; the first figure representing the general class Sociology; the second, the division Political Economy; the third, the section devoted to Capital, Labour and Wages; the fourth, Labouring Classes; and the fifth, Strikes. The main classification only covers three figures, any further sub-division being carried beyond the decimal point.

[1] The late Mr. Justin Winsor gave this admirable advice as to the use of cataloguing systems:—

"Each of two systems under proper conditions may be equally good, when both are understood and an equal familiarity has been acquired with each. Choose that which you naturally take to; use it, and do not decide that the other is not perfectly satisfactory to him who chose that. Whichever you have chosen, study to improve it, and you will probably do so, in so far as it becomes fitted more closely to the individuality of yourself and your library."

Mr. C. A. Cutter devised some years ago a system which he calls the Expansive Classification. Briefly it consists of seven tables of classification, of progressive fulness, designed to meet the needs of a library at its successive stages of growth, and so arranged that the transfer from one classification to a closer or more minute one, can be made with comparatively little trouble. The main classes are: General Works, Philosophy, Religion, Biography, History, Geography and Travels, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences, Medicine, Useful Arts, Fine Arts, Arts of Communication by Language. Fiction, Poetry, etc., are included in the last section.

From the point of view of the practical librarian, catalogues are subject to still another division. In addition to the classes of catalogues which are open to the public, and with which we are all familiar, there are several which belong to the internal economy of the library, and are used only by the staff.

The first of these is the Accession Catalogue, in which the history of every book acquired either by purchase or gift, is recorded; when it was acquired, its accession number, its class, book and volume number, a short title, place and date of publication, size, binding, cost, etc., with a remarks column in which is noted its subsequent history, whether it is rebound, transferred, lost, sold, condemned or exchanged.

The index is the official authors' catalogue, for use by the librarians in checking the public authors' catalogue, which is prepared from it.

The shelf list is the official subject catalogue. It represents the actual arrangement of the books on the shelves. It is generally on loose sheets, laced together, and gives the class, book and volume number of each volume, together with its accession number, author, and short title. It is used in the annual examination of the library, and also serves as the librarian's subject catalogue, giving a compact list of all the books which the library has on any given subject.

The greatest of all catalogues is, of course, the Catalogue of Printed Books in the British Museum, the printing of which was begun in 1880 and completed by the end of the century. The catalogue contains separate entries of every book, pamphlet, magazine, newspaper and broadside or single-sheet in the library, with the exception of a few collections of books and pamphlets which are covered by special catalogues.

Up to 1897 the British Museum was the only library of the first rank that had printed its general catalogue, either by author or subject. In August of that year there appeared the first volume of the general alphabetical catalogue of the Bibliothèque Nationale. The catalogue is preceded by a learned introduction by M. Léopold Delisle, giving the history of the library and its various catalogues, and describing the

scope of the new undertaking. It is expected to contain about two million entries, including, however, a number of cross-references from editors, translators, etc.

One of the most notable of European library catalogues is that in use at the Royal Library at Breslau. Dr. Dziatzko, formerly librarian at Breslau, and now of the University of Göttingen, originated this catalogue. Dr. Dziatzko's system, which has already been mentioned as the main source of Linderfelt's Code, was itself founded upon the British Museum rules, with certain important modifications. The Breslau catalogue is not a book catalogue, like that of the British Museum, but a card catalogue.

The dictionary catalogue is peculiarly an American invention, and very few specimens are to be found outside of the United States. One may be mentioned, however, the "Analytical and Classified Catalogue of the Library of Parliament of Queensland," 1883, prepared by Mr. D. O'Donovan, Parliamentary Librarian. The books are entered under author and subject with full cross-references, and all the entries are arranged in one alphabet. There are abstracts of the contents of some of the books, and references to articles in reviews. The finest example of this type of catalogue is, of course, that of the Surgeon-General's Office, Washington, but the tremendous amount of money and labour expended upon this catalogue makes it improbable that any other library will attempt to carry out the dictionary principle so exhaustively.

Mr. Cutter, in the introduction to his "Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue," gives the following analysis of this form of catalogue:—It must embody: Author-entry, title-entry or title-reference, subject-entry, cross-references and classed subject table, form-entry, the edition and imprint, with notes bibliographical and literary where necessary. It is designed to serve the following purposes: To enable a person to find a book of which either the author, the title, or the subject is known. To show what a library has, by a given author, on a given subject, or in a given kind of literature. To assist in the choice of a book, as to its edition (bibliographically), or, as to its character (literary or topical).

The dictionary catalogue includes practically the advantages of every other kind of catalogue. It answers every legitimate question that the reader or student may ask as to the books of which it is the record. It is, therefore, if properly constructed, of inestimable benefit to the constituents of any library, large or small.

The arrangement of books upon the shelves may be roughly divided into two classes : the fixed location system ; and the relative location. The former has been adopted at the British Museum, the Bodleian, and most of the larger libraries of England and the Continent. About the only American library which uses it is that of Cornell University. The

relative location is practically universal in the United States; and has also been adopted by some of the modern English free libraries, the newer portions of the Cambridge University Library, and in the Bibliothèque Nationale. In the fixed location system, the books are arranged in definite book-cases, each of which has a number or letter which forms part of the press-mark of the book. In the relative location, the books are arranged not with regard to any particular book-case or shelf, but with regard to each other. They run along the shelves, free from either the wasteful gaps, or inconvenient crowding, inevitable in the fixed location.

"If you are troubled with a pride of accuracy, and would have it completely taken out of you, print a catalogue."—*Henry Stevens.*

References on Cataloguing and Classification:—

Cataloguing: *Enc. Britt.*, XIV., pp. 587, 589.

Report U.S. Libraries, p. 399 (special and complete catalogues); 425; 489 (cataloguing); 495 (shelf lists); 496 (finding lists). 497 (printed catalogues); 512 (cataloguing college libraries); 552 (printed or MSS.?); 645 (subject catalogues); 648 (dictionary catalogues); 657, 660 (classed catalogues).

Papers prepared for World's Lib. Cong., 826 *et seq.*

Library Administration, by J. Macfarlane, London, 1896; p. 78.

How to Catalogue a Library, by H. B. Wheatley, London, 1889.

Denver Library Hand-Book, pp. 59 (card catalogues); 108-111 (what questions a catalogue should answer, etc.); 117-120 (dictionary catalogue).

Essays in Librarianship, by Dr. R. Garnett, London (1899), pp. 33, 34, 109-114 (British Museum catalogue).

The Free Library, by J. J. Ogle, London (1897), p. 125.

Home Education Report (Univ. of State of N.Y.), 1899, p. 79 (card catalogues).

Classification: *Enc. Britt.*, III., 661.

How to Catalogue a Library (Wheatley), 47.

Report U.S. Libraries, 492, 623 *et seq.*

Denver Library Hand-Book, 112-115, 124.

Library Administration (Marfarlane), 148.

Essays in Librarianship (Garnett), 210 *et seq.*

Papers prepared for World's Lib. Cong., 861. At p. 893 will be found a very full list of references on classification.

The Open Shelf System.

This system is one of the most recent developments in library administration. While the idea itself is not very new, its distinctive application belongs to the past decade, and the initiation of the system must be credited to American libraries and librarians. In a limited sense, open access to the book shelves has been in operation for many years past in the British Museum, the French National Library at Paris, and other English and Continental libraries. In the reading-room of the British Museum some 20,000 carefully selected books are open to the public; and in the Salle de Travail of the Bibliothèque Nationale about 12,000 are made available in this way.

In the United States the principle has been carried to its logical conclusion in several prominent libraries, by throwing practically the whole resources of the library open to the public. Many other American libraries have contented themselves with the more conservative system of the British Museum, by placing a certain number of selected books in one room, generally called the "Open Shelf Room," where they may be consulted by readers without the intervention of the library attendants.

An admirable example of the successful working of the Open Shelf System as applied to an entire library, is furnished by the Philadelphia Public Library. Here the books are conveniently classified, and the visitor or reader may go direct to the shelves and examine the authorities on any given subject to his heart's content, or pick out the book he wants and carry it to a neighbouring table. The success of the system at Philadelphia has been all that its most devoted adherents could desire.

Professor Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, has clearly stated the case for the Open Shelf System in the course of an elaborate paper on "Public Libraries and Popular Education." He says: "The old method of guiding readers in the use of books was the printed catalogue; but public experience in America long ago demonstrated that men and women want to see the *books* rather than the mere *titles* of books. A brief examination of a printed volume soon convinces the reader whether he wants to read that particular book. Moreover, access to a varied collection of authorities on one subject, like that of money, or labour, China, or Cuba, quickly determines the reader's choice. Oldtime methods of scholastic administration often raised barriers between the books and the people, just as medieval theories raised monastic walls between social life and religion."

In the Astor Library, the New York Circulating, and other libraries of the American metropolis, the open shelf system is

reported to be a pronounced success. In the New York Circulating Library the system has been extended to nearly all its numerous branches throughout the city, and free access to the shelves is permitted even to children over nine years of age.

At Buffalo a large room is devoted to the purposes of open access. Here some 11,000 books are classified in cases around the walls. A number of reading tables fill the centre of the room, and the reader may forage around, picking out what he wants from the shelves. In the Buffalo Library, as in most of the American libraries that have adopted the Open Access System, the books are not put back on the shelves by readers, but are left on a central table, to be replaced by the attendants. This obviates one of the chief objections to the system raised by English librarians, that the books would become hopelessly mixed through the carelessness of readers in not returning them to their proper places on the shelves.

In the Reynolds Library at Rochester, a similar arrangement is in existence. On the ground floor there is a reference or study library with some 3,000 books most in demand, which are directly accessible to the public. Here, as in other American libraries, a reference librarian is always on hand, to advise and assist readers, but in no way to interfere with their free access to the shelves.

Many other cases might be cited of American libraries which have adopted this admirable system, as, for instance, the Cleveland Library, where it is claimed to have increased the circulation of the books 60 per cent in a very short time. From present indications the system is bound to grow in favour, on both sides of the Atlantic.

In his admirable article on "College Library Administration," forming part of the voluminous report on "Public Libraries in the United States," Professor Ottis H. Robinson made a strong plea for the Open Access System as applied to college libraries, and his argument is equally applicable to the case of a public library. The plea that in a public library such a privilege would be taken advantage of by frivolous or careless readers, to the great detriment of the books, is not borne out by the experience of those libraries that have tried the experiment. It has been found — as any thoughtful man might have predicted — that the classes of people who take advantage of the privilege are the serious-minded readers, the students, the genuine seekers after knowledge. As for the idle or frivolous reader, he still prefers that the library attendants should relieve him from the task of choosing a book. And even if this were not so, is it not better and wiser to take chances of a few books being lost or damaged, rather than deny to serious readers the immense advantage of personal contact with the books as they lie classified on the shelves? The time

spent in browsing around among the books is never lost. As for the further objection that Open Access will prove an added temptation and opportunity to evil-disposed persons, it need only be stated that a reasonable supervision should in any event be kept over rooms where books are made freely accessible to the public, and if this is done there need be no great fear of book thieves.

"Remove the barriers," says Professor Robinson, "and make familiarity with well chosen authors as easy as practicable. No habit is more uncertain or more capricious than that of a student in a library. He wants to thumb the books which he cannot call for by name. It is not an idle curiosity. He wants to know, and has a right to know, a good deal more about them than can be learned from teachers and catalogues. Deny him this, and he turns away disappointed and discouraged; grant him this, and his interest is awakened, his love for books increased, and the habit of reading will most likely be formed."

Open Shelf vs. Indicator.

In England the question has developed into one of Open Shelf *vs.* Indicator. The use of indicators is very widespread in Great Britain; but the device is practically unknown in the United States. In Australia and in Canada it has found a few adherents. In England the rival system of "open access" is steadily gaining ground, and there seems reason for believing that it will ultimately displace the indicator.

The Indicator is an arrangement for showing whether or not a given book is in or out. There are a number of varieties in use in English libraries, but by far the most popular is what is known as the "Cotgreave Indicator," from the name of its inventor. This indicator is in use in over sixty libraries in London alone, besides many in other parts of the Kingdom. The following description is taken from Macfarlane's work on "Library Administration," in Dr. Garnett's *Library Series* :—"It consists of an upright framework of wood or metal, fitted with minute zinc shelves without ends, which is placed in the library so that one side (protected with glass) is visible to the public, and the other accessible to the staff. On the shelves are placed title-ledgers of blank forms, in metal cases with ends, coloured red and blue respectively, and bearing numbers. When a case is inserted so that the blue end meets the public eye it is to be understood that the book bearing the number shown is 'in'; when the red end is seen it is 'out'. The borrower having found in the catalogue the number of the book he requires, and seeing by the colour exhibited on his

side of the Indicator that it is 'in,' hands in a request for it, together with his 'borrower's ticket.' The library assistant removes the corresponding ledger from its shelf, enters it in the number of the borrower's ticket and the date of the loan, places the ticket in the ledger, and replaces it so as to exhibit the 'out' colour to the public." Despite the popularity of the Indicator in England, one finds it hard to see how there can be any question as to the superiority of the Open Shelf System, combined with the modern charging system of cards and trays.

The first English public library to adopt the Open Shelf System, or "Open Access" as it is called in England, was that at Clerkenwell, whose librarian, Mr. James D. Brown, was sent over to the United States at the time of the Chicago Exhibition, by his unusually generous and far-sighted Library Committee, to study modern American library methods. Mr. Brown prefers the term "safeguarded access" as applied to the Open Shelf System, it being, he considers, more accurate, since it is admitted that various checks on readers and borrowers are necessary. At Clerkenwell the system applies to the circulating, but not to the reference library. The public "enter the library at one side of an enclosed counter in which an assistant is placed, and leave with him the books they are returning. After choosing a volume from the open shelves they bring it to the other side of the counter, where it is booked for them, and they then leave the library by a different door from the one by which they entered. The book-shelves are placed end on with the issue counter, so that an assistant stationed there can see between each, and has full control of the whole library."

A limited form of "open access" was tried at the Liverpool Public Library a few years ago, but has since been discontinued on account of the loss of the books. That this loss was not due to any weakness in the system so much as to defective supervision, is proved by the fact that the books were shelved in alcoves, where anything like adequate supervision would be impossible.

The system has been adopted in the Croydon Public Library, where it has proved eminently satisfactory, the library building having been arranged to suit the system.

In the Wigan Free Library, a special building for boys was opened in 1895, and here also a system of open shelving has been adopted.

At St. Martin's, London, open access is in vogue, but, reversing the Clerkenwell plan, it applies only to the reference department. An ingenious device is also in use here to keep readers informed as to recent additions to the library. It is known as the "wheel catalogue," and is placed under glazed portions of the counter. By means of

a lever it is made to revolve and bring successively into view a long list of new book-titles arranged on the circumference of the wheel.

At Birmingham a limited form of open access is in operation, a large number of works of reference, now filling nearly fifty shelves, being made free to the public. This system applies also to the Aberdeen Library.

At Cardiff, in Wales, the open shelf system has been tried in four of the branches, but unfortunately the plan has been abused by systematic book thieves and consequently discredited.

The general experience, both in the United States and England, seems to have been that, with proper precautions, the loss of books is very small. The experience of the Boston Public Library has certainly been very unfortunate, for out of a juvenile library of 5,000 books, several hundred were lost in one year, but this was admittedly the result of a lack of reasonable supervision. The Minneapolis Public Library, on the other hand, issued several hundred "free access" permits in a year, and only lost three volumes from the reference shelves and a few odd numbers of periodicals. The experience at Philadelphia and New York has been practically the same. The losses from English libraries adopting the system have as a rule been very insignificant—at Clerkenwell about three volumes in a year. At the British Museum experience has shown that the only books at all likely to be purloined are the small portable volumes, of comparatively slight value. Until recently a set of "Murray's Guides" was placed in the reading room of the Museum for the use of readers, but these "used to vanish—not quite unaccountably—about the month of August, and either remain away, or come back in October stained with much trouble." Now "Murray" reclines upon a remote shelf, and one must send an attendant for him.

On the whole, the Open Shelf System would seem to have come to stay. It is only from the librarian's point of view, as custodian of the books, that there can be any question as to the desirability of the plan. From the reader's standpoint the system is one of inestimable benefit. And it must always be remembered, that it is not so much the convenience of librarians or libraries that is to be considered, but above all the convenience and benefit of the public, for whom solely the public library exists. As Mr. George Iles, a New York librarian, very justly said, "only when the full catalogue, whatever its form, and the shelves themselves are at the free disposal of the public, does the public library fully stand by the promise of its open door."[1]

[1] The Open Shelf, or Open Access, system has been very widely discussed during the past few years. The following references are merely suggestive.

Loan or Charging System.

The primary requisites of any system for keeping a record of books borrowed in a public library, are speed, simplicity, and the minimum of trouble to the borrower. In some libraries readers are driven away by unnecessary and exasperating "red-tape"; and in others the efficiency of the library is sacrificed to the impatience of borrowers. Either extreme is in the long run fatal to the growth and efficiency of the library. And yet it is not always easy to attain that happy medium which should be the aim of every right-minded librarian. Borrowers are not always patient and reasonable — as instance the case of Mr. Carlyle, already referred to—and the temptation is doubtless often strong upon the well-meaning librarian to sacrifice accuracy and thoroughness upon the altar of popular favour.

The oldest of the various systems at present in use for charging books, is what is known as the Ledger System. In this system — which is widely used in English, Australian and Canadian libraries, as well as on the Continent,—the record of books borrowed and borrowers' names is kept in a ledger, each borrower having a separate page. When a book is taken out, the number is entered on the proper page, with the date, and when the book returns, the charge is cancelled. A day-book is frequently used with this system, for the sake of speedy charging. The advantages of the system are its permanent form, compactness, speed, and the fact that each borrower's record

" d do not pretend to cover the literature of the subject with any approach
 exhaustiveness:—

" Papers Prepared for the World's Library Congress," edited by Melvil Dewey. Washington, 1896. pp. 737, 924, 979, 989, 993.

" College Library Administration," by Prof. Otis H. Robinson, in " Report on Public Libraries in the United States." Washington, 1876. p. 516.

7th Annual Report (1899) Home Education Department. University of the State of New York. pp. 79, 84, 90, 152, 251.

" Freedom in Public Libraries," by William Howard Brett, in " Transactions and Proceedings, International Library Conference." London, 1898. pp. 79-83.

" Denver Library Hand-Book." pp. 14, 60.

" The Free Library," by J. J. Ogle. London, 1897. p. 101.

" Library Administration," by J. Macfarlane. London, 1898. pp. 78, 208, 211.

" Library Construction," by F. J. Burgoyne. London, 1897. pp. 169, 187, 205, 210.

Library Journal, V. 8, p. 241 (Foster), V. 13, p. 35 (Cornell), V. 15, pp. 100, 103, 133-4, 197-8, 229-31, 296 (Symposium on Open Access), V. 16, pp. 268-9 (Higginson), 297-300 (N.Y. Lib. Club), etc., etc.

Library Notes, V. 2, p. 216, V. 12, p. 189, V. 18, p. 181, V. 24, C136-42, etc., etc.

The Library (London), Ser. 2, V. 1 (Dec., 1899), pp. 49-62.

stands by itself. There are, however, many weaknesses in the system, chief of which is the practical impossibility of obtaining from it any information as to a given book.

A modification of the Ledger System [illegible] is known as the Temporary Slip System. The slips may be used in the same way as the pages of the ledger, with the advantage that more than one person may be engaged in charging and discharging books. The slips are arranged in trays or in pigeonholes in any of three ways: (1) with guide cards or blocks for each day, making practically a daybook; (2) by borrower's name or number, making an account with the borrower; or, (3) by call number, making an account with the book. A suggestion has been made that by means of a carbon paper, such as is used by clerks in a dry-goods store, an extra copy of each slip might be made, and thus two records would be possible, one arranged by borrowers and the other by books.

The system most used in American libraries is the Card System. This is a further development of the Temporary Slip System. The record, being on durable cards, is permanent rather than temporary. In other respects the system is substantially the same. As a matter of fact, however, there are two card systems — the Single Card System and the Two Card System. The advantages of the former over the Temporary Slip System are comparatively slight; but the Two Card System has many important advantages. It is, on the whole, the most altogether satisfactory system that has yet been devised. There are two sets of cards — borrowers' and book cards, the latter kept usually in date order. The system is subject to a number of variations, but the arrangement generally used is that in which the borrower's card records the call number and date, and the book card the borrower's number and date. When a book is returned, the dating slip in it and the date of the borrower's card are compared, and if the same, the latter is marked with the date of return and handed back, while the book card is looked up by means of the number in the book, the date of return is noted on it, the card placed in a pocket on the inside cover of the book, or in a card indicator, and the book returned to the shelves.

The indicator, so widely used in English libraries, must also be mentioned among charging systems. There are a number of forms, and a description of the most popular, known as the "Cotgreave," is given elsewhere in this paper.

A feature that is common to some of the indicators as well as the card systems, is the movable date register or tray. The date register of the indicator has eleven columns for books not overdue, and one

for overdue books. The date tray has fourteen compartments for the former, and one for the latter.

The trays move from right to left, and as to-day's circulation becomes yesterday's, its tray is moved one space to the left, while the fourteenth tray shows that all cards left in it represent books one day overdue, and the delinquents can thus be promptly notified.

Some years ago a list was prepared by the librarian of the Milwaukee Public Library, and published in the *Library Journal*, of 20 questions answered by the charging system of that library. Of these questions, it may be noted that only those relating to borrowers can as a rule be answered by the Ledger System. Three or four additional questions may be answered by the Temporary Slip System, and the Single Card System. The Two Card System answers nearly all. The list is as follows (the additions in brackets having been added by Miss Plummer, of the Pratt Institute, in a paper on "Loan Systems"): —

1. Is a given book out ?
2. If out, who has it ?
3. When did he take it ?
4. When is it to be sent for as overdue ?
5. Has the book ever been out ?
6. How many times and when has the book been out ?
7. How many (and what) books were issued on a given day ?
7a. How many (and what) books are due on a given day ?
8. How many (and what) books in each class were issued on a given day?
9. How many (and what) books are now out, charged to borrowers ?
10. How many (and what) books are at the bindery ?
11. Has a certain book been rebound, and when ?
12. What books have been discarded ?
13. Does the circulation of a discarded book warrant its being replaced ?
14. Has a given borrower a book charged to him ?
14a. (How many books are charged to him ?)
14b. (What books are charged to him ?)
15. How many persons have now books charged to them ?
16. Are these the persons who registered earliest or latest ?
17. How often has a borrower made use of the library ?
18. Has a borrower had a given book before ?
19. What has been the character of the borrower's reading ?
20. Is the borrower's card still in force and used ?
20a. (Has this person a right to draw books ?

Questions 10, 11 and 12 are answered, in most libraries, by a reference to the Accession Book.

In the Proceedings of the American Library Association for 1889, pp. 203-214, will be found an admirable historical treatment of Charging Systems, in the United States, by Mr. H. J. Carr. In an appendix to Mr. Carr's report is given a bibliography of Charging Systems from 1876 to 1888. The subject has been frequently dealt with since 1888 in the *American Library Journal*. See :

Functions of a Librarian.

Nowhere is the difference more marked between the old and new conceptions of librarianship, than in the duties of the librarian, his attitude towards the library and his attitude towards the public. Under the old dispensation the librarian was merely a custodian of books. Books were few; readers were fewer; the librarian had very little to do, and was estimated accordingly. He was considered to be, and as a matter of fact generally was, a comparatively useless member of society. One John Durie published a little book, in 1650, "The Reformed Librarie-Keeper," in which he drew a very unflattering picture of the librarians of his day. "They subordinate," he says, "all the advantages of their places to purchase mainly two things thereby, viz., an easie subsistence, and some credit in comparison with others; nor is the last much regarded, if the first may be had." He then proceeds to set forth what he considers the "proper charge of the Honorarie Librarie-keeper," to wit, "to keep the publick stock of learning, which is in Books and Manuscripts, to increas it, and to propose to others in the waie which may be most useful unto all"; from which one gathers that John Durie was a man several hundred years in advance of his age. Among other things, he recommended a "Catalogue of Additionals," to be printed every three years.

An English librarian of our own times, Mr. Henry Bradshaw, gives in a single sentence an admirable definition of the ideal librarian. "A librarian," he says, "is one who earns his living by attending to the wants of those for whose use the library under his charge exists; his primary duty being, in the widest possible sense of the phrase, to save the time of those who seek his services." And to this might be added the qualification suggested by an American librarian, Mrs. M. A. Sanders — herself a striking example of the success of her theory — "the librarian should meet the reader in the position of a host or hostess welcoming a guest."

Unfortunately, even in these latter days there are not wanting people, and educated people too, whose conception of the librarian and his work is a conception that belongs to the seventeenth or eighteenth century. According to their idea, his chief duty consists in handing books over a counter to the library's customers. How surprised they would be to be told that the conscientious librarian—the librarian who has the best interests of his library at heart—gives and must give, not an hour or two daily, but his whole waking thoughts,

1889, 14: 213-14; 1899, 14: 468-9; 1889, 14: 281; 1891, 16: 232; 1891, 16: 251-2; 1891, 16: 246; 1891, 16: 334-4; 1893, 18: 42.

to the innumerable problems that confront him from morning till night. Trained intelligence, a genuine love for and wide knowledge of good literature, business acumen, native courtesy and helpfulness, tact and discrimination, a good memory, patience, breadth of view; these are some of the essential characteristics of the successful modern lib rian. The day has happily gone when the office of a librarian was merel, a refuge for some broken-down politician, unsuccessful school-teacher, or man who had made a failure of his profession, whatever it might be. Librarianship is now an honourable profession, the w rld over. Careful study and preparation is required of those who aspire to the position either of a librarian or library assistant; and it is even beginning to be recognized by Library Committees that a man or a woman possessing the requisite qualifications is entitled to a fair remuneration.

We are merely upon the threshold of a new era in the history of public libraries. What the present century may see, in the direction of increasing and broadening their mission as factors in the educational life of the community, it would be difficult to foretell, but that that influence will be deep and lasting, everyone who has studied the recent development of public libraries, especially in the United States and England, must feel heartily assured.

APPENDIX.

For the benefit of those who might be sufficiently interested in the subject of Canadian libraries, the writer prepared a list of questions, which were submitted to the librarians of all the more important public libraries throughout the Dominion. Through the courtesy of these officers, very complete answers have been secured to the several questions submitted, the substance of which will be found below.

No attempt has been made to procure data from all the Ontario libraries, of which the last Report of the Minister of Education for that Province (1901) records 432 in existence, divided into 303 "Public Libraries" and 129 "Free Libraries," but a certain number of the larger and more representative Ontario libraries were selected, as to which somewhat fuller particulars have been p ured than are to be found in the tables of the Education Report. These latter tables con-

A series of works that will be found of inestimable advantage to librarians, library assistants, and those who may be preparing themselves for the profession, is *The Library Series*, edited by Dr. Richard Garnett, formerly of the British Museum. The series is in five volumes, each devoted to a particular branch of library work: construction, administration, etc. The books are published by George Allen, London, England.

tain a statement of receipts, expenditure, balance on hand, number of members, number of volumes in library, number of volumes issued, number of newspapers and periodicals, assets, and liabilities, for each of the Ontario libraries reporting to the Department. The list of questions which I submitted was as follows:—

When was library first established ?
Is it in a special building, or where ?
How is it supported ?
What is the total income ?
How many on the staff ?
What salaries paid ?
Have you any branches ?
How many assistants in each ?
How many books at present ?
How many pamphlets ?
What catalogues used—card, printed, or manuscript ?
What system of classification ?
Do you prefer any other system ?
Do you use any and if so, what indicator ?
Do you publish bulletins of new books—
  On a board in the Library ?
  Or in the newspapers ?
Have you any special rule for buying fiction ?
What is your annual circulation of books ?
How does circulation of fiction compare with total circulation ?
Do you permit readers to have access to the shelves ?
Do you approve of it ?
Is your library open on Sunday ?
Have you any special provision in your library—
  For children ?
  For school pupils ?
Have you any connection with the public schools ?
Have you any special collections of books ?
Do you keep scrap-books, for clippings, prints, etc. ?
Are there any fittings or other conveniences peculiar to your library ?

Outside the province of Ontario, there are at present not more than half a dozen free public libraries in the Dominion. These are at St. John, N.B., Chatham, N.B., Halifax, N.S., Winnipeg, Man., Victoria, B.C., Vancouver, B.C., and New Westminster, B.C. To these have been added two endowed free libraries, the Fraser Institute, Montreal, and the Portland Library, St. John, N.B.

Library	When est'd	Class	Income	Staff	Salaries	No. of Books	No. of Pamphlets	Catalogues	Classification	Circulation	Percentage of fiction [3]	Librarian or Secretary
Berlin	1884	Free	$1,822.82	1	$ 300.00	7,086	....	Printed	Educ. Dept	16,406	Very large	E. A. Schmidt
Brantford	1884	"	3,420.85	4	1,200.00	16,938	....	"	" "	66,715	80 %	E. D. Henwood
Brockville	1891	"	1,308.36	3	325.00	9,520	....	Card and pr.	" "	40,660	50 %	Carrie R. Rowe
Collingwood	1856	"	897.59	1	200.00	5,000	....	Printed	" "	10,082	Large	F. B. Gregory
Dundas	1845	Public	838.00	1	250.00	7,396	....	"	" "	5,941	21 %	W. F. Moore
Elora	1871	"	300.00	1	75.00	8,000	....	"	11 Classes	7,000	55 %	H. Clarke
Guelph	1883	Free	1,722.22	2	600.00	10,418	....	"	Educ. Dept	59,606	48 %	Margaret Graham
Hamilton	1889	"	14,548.58	7	4,048.00	28,578	....	"	Dewey Syst	201,784	Very large	
Lindsay	1879	"	1,113.77	2	300.00	3,306	60	"	Chron. by subt	19,299	Two-thirds	E. A. Hardy
London	1895	"	10,836.94	4	2,300.00	14,767	....	Card and pr.	Dewey Syst	81,122	"	R. J. Blackwell
Halifax	1865	"	.....	5	1,450.00	23,250	...	Printed	" "	....	50 %	J. Warren
Niagara	1848	Public	350.00	1	66.00	5,395	315	MSS. and pr.	Edud. Dept	15,980	50 %	Janet Carnochan
Paris	1841	"	600.00	1	170.00	6,800	....	MSS	" "	6,229	50 %	
Portland	1882	End'd	700.00	1	225.00	3,450	...	Printed	Alpha. by auts	10,595	...	Flor. Edwards
Montreal	1885	"	.....	4	....	39,000	....	Card	" "	.....	60 %	T. B. de Crèvecœur
St. John	1883	Public	2,000.00	2	675.00	12,000	....	"	Simple classn	40,000	Two-thirds	Catherine Martin
St. Thomas	1884	"	1,971.12	1	360.00	7,293	....	Card and pr.	" "	21,511	20½ %	Eliza Morgan
Sarnia	1900	"	1,400.00	2	350.00	3,600	....	Printed	Educ. Dept	34,602	30 %	Jas. Spereman
Stratford	1847	Free	1,225.00	2	372.00	6,700	....	"	" "	40,000	60 %	J. D. Barnett
Toronto	1883	"	34,615.73	16	14,528.84	111,725	12,000	"	Mod. Dewey [2]	539,226	60·1 %	Dr. Jas. Bain
Vancouver	1891	"	.....	3 [1]	1,500.00	7,500	500	Printed	Special Classn.	40,000	85 %	Edwin Machin
Victoria	1867	"	.....	2	840.00	8,000	300	"	Chron. by subt	.....	....	Henry Goward
Waterloo	1876	"	701.93	1	150.00	6,781	....	"	Educ. Dept.	10,022	14 %	C. A. Hachull
Winnipeg	1879	" [5]	2,500.00	3	1,300.00	10,000 [4]	....	"	Am Lib. Cat	30,000	80 %	Geo. Bryce, LL.D., Chairman

[1] Exclusive of branches.

[2] Modified Dewey system in reference; Chronological in circulating department.

[3] "You cannot (writes Mr. Hardy, of the Lindsay library,) place any reliance on answers to this question, as the average Ontario library classifies fiction as History, Travels, Religion, Miscellaneous, etc."

[4] Of these 6,000 belong to the Historical Society of Manitoba.

[5] Governed by a joint committee appointed by the City Council and the Historical Society of Manitoba.

It will be seen from the foregoing table that the system of classification in most general use — if it may be dignified with the name of a system — is the one prescribed by the Education Department of Ontario. Several libraries use systems of their own, generally a simple alphabetical arrangement by authors under a few general headings. The Dewey Decimal System is used in the Hamilton Library, the Citizens' Free Library of Halifax, the London Public Library, and, in a modified form, in the Reference Department of the Toronto Public. It is also used in several Canadian college libraries. Cutter's Expansive System is used in only one Canadian library, that of McGill University.

The great majority of Canadian libraries use a printed catalogue, with periodical supplements. Card catalogues are used in the Fraser Institute, Montreal, in the Reference Department of the Toronto Library, and, in conjunction with a printed catalogue, at London, Brockville, St. Thomas, and in one or two other Ontario libraries.

The consensus of opinion among Canadian librarians and library committees seems to be somewhat divided on the question of permitting readers to have access to the shelves, under what is known as the Open Shelf, or Open Access, System. The system has been adopted, under various restrictions, in the following libraries: — Berlin (to all books except fiction and juvenile), Dundas (to a limited extent), Elora, Halifax (for reference purposes only), Hamilton (under certain restrictions), Niagara, Paris, Sarnia (not at present, but propose doing so in new library), Stratford (absolutely unrestricted, except as to fiction and juvenile), and Victoria. Vancouver replies: "The open access system was tried here and found very unsatisfactory." It might be added that in a large majority of the college libraries of Canada, students are permitted to have either full or partial access to the book shelves.

Another important point upon which information was obtained, is, whether any special provision is made for children, or school pupils. Here, again, opinion seems to be somewhat divided, although it may at once be said that, in the sense of the larger and fully organized children's departments of United States libraries, there is at present no such thing as special provision for children in Canadian libraries; that is to say, there are no rooms specially constructed and set apart for children, no fittings or furniture specially adapted to the needs of children, no library attendants whose special duty it is to look after the wants of the children, and, except to a very limited extent, no attempt to provide a special, carefully selected and classified, juvenile section in the library, with its own catalogues. The public library of Victoria provides "certain library shelves for

children's books, to be selected but not read in the library"; Vancouver has "no special provision for children at present, but intends to do so in the new building now under construction through the generosity of Mr. Carnegie"; at St. Thomas "the Board has placed books in the schools for supplementary reading, under the teachers' supervision"; Berlin replies: "Not at present, but in our new building, which is being built this summer, a children's department will be included"; Lindsay has "a special collection of juvenile books, specially classified"; Brockville "would have special provision if we had proper accommodation"; Sarnia also pleads "lack of room"; St. John, N.B., has no special provision, but "aims at it"; Stratford "is arranging for a special children's reading-room in the new building."

So far, only one Canadian library has reached the stage where the establishment of branches becomes necessary or desirable. Toronto possesses five flourishing branches, in connection with the central reference and circulating library.

Indicators, generally a simplified form of the "Cotgreave," are used in the following libraries: Toronto, Hamilton, London, Berlin, Grand Trunk (Montreal), Brockville and Collingwood; Vancouver "intends to procure one," while St. John replies, "No, they are obsolete."

The Citizens' Free Library of Halifax is distinguished from all other Canadian libraries by possessing a bindery of its own, in which all necessary binding and repairing is done. The binder receives $34.66 per month, and an assistant gets $13.00 per month.